

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Prevention of 90-day inpatient detoxification readmission for opioid use disorder by a community-based life-changing individualized medically assisted evidence-based treatment (C.L.I.M.B.) program: A quasi-experimental study

Zhehui Luo^{1*}, Canopy Roychoudhury², William S. Pompos³, James DiMaria², Cynthia M. Robinette², Purva H. Gore², Rohon Roychoudhury⁴, William Beecroft³

1 Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, United States of America, **2** Health Care Value Business Analytics Services, Blue Cross Blue Shield of Michigan, Detroit, Michigan, United States of America, **3** Behavioral Health Strategy & Planning, Blue Cross Blue Shield of Michigan, Detroit, Michigan, United States of America, **4** College of Osteopathic Medicine, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, United States of America

* zluo@msu.edu



OPEN ACCESS

Citation: Luo Z, Roychoudhury C, Pompos WS, DiMaria J, Robinette CM, Gore PH, et al. (2022) Prevention of 90-day inpatient detoxification readmission for opioid use disorder by a community-based life-changing individualized medically assisted evidence-based treatment (C.L.I.M.B.) program: A quasi-experimental study. PLoS ONE 17(12): e0278208. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278208>

Editor: Rikinkumar S. Patel, Duke University Medical Center: Duke University Hospital, UNITED STATES

Received: February 8, 2022

Accepted: November 12, 2022

Published: December 15, 2022

Copyright: © 2022 Luo et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: Data cannot be shared publicly because of the Data Use and Non-Disclosure Agreement between Blue Cross and Blue Shield of Michigan (BCBSM), Blue Care Network of Michigan (BCNM), and Michigan State University (MSU). Data are available from the BCBSM/BCNM Research Review Committee (contact via RRC@bcbsm.com) for researchers

Abstract

Background

Evidence for community-based strategies to reduce inpatient detoxification readmission for opioid use disorder (OUD) is scant. A pilot program was designed to provide individualized structured treatment plans, including addressing prolonged withdrawal symptoms, family/systems assessment, and contingency management, to reduce readmission after the index inpatient detoxification.

Methods

A non-randomized quasi-experimental design was used to compare the pilot facilities (treatment) and comparison facilities before and after the program started, i.e., a simple difference-in-differences (DID) strategy. Adults 18 years and older who met the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders version 5 criteria for OUD and had an inpatient detoxification admission at any OUD treatment facility in two study periods between 7/2016 and 3/2020 were included. Readmission for inpatient detoxification in 90-days after the index stay was the primary outcome, and partial hospitalization, intensive outpatient care, outpatient services, and medications for OUD were the secondary outcomes. Six statistical estimation methods were used to triangulate evidence and adjust for potential confounding factors between treatment and comparison groups.

whose research protocol meets the criteria for access to confidential data.

Funding: Dr. Luo received an Investigator Initiated Research Program grant (#002648.MG) from the Blue Cross and Blue Shield of Michigan Foundation. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Abbreviations: C.L.I.M.B., community-based life-changing individualized medically assisted evidence-based treatment; OUD, opioid use disorder; DID, difference-in-differences; ASAM, American Society of Addiction Medicine; BCN, Blue Care Network; BCBSM, Blue Cross Blue Shield of Michigan; DRD, difference of risk differences; OR, odds ratio; ROR, ratio of odds ratios; PPO, preferred provider organization; HMO, health maintenance organization; ADI, area deprivation index; COI, childhood opportunity index; SVI, social vulnerability index; RA, regression adjustment; IPW, inverse probability weighted; PS, propensity scores; CI, confidence interval; RCT, randomized controlled trial; MOUD, medication for opioid use disorder; A-CHESS, Addiction-Center for Health Enablement Support System; LOC, level of care; SUD, substance use disorder; ICD-10-CM, International Classification of Diseases, 10th version, Clinical Modification.

Results

A total of 2,320 unique patients in the pilot and comparison facilities with 2,443 index inpatient detoxification admissions in the pre- and post-periods were included. Compared with patients in comparison facilities, patients in the C.L.I.M.B. facilities had higher readmission in the pre-period (unadjusted readmission 17.0% vs. 10.6%), but similar rates in the post-period (12.3% vs. 10.6%) after the implementation of the pilot program. For 90-day readmission, all DID estimates were not statistically significant (adjusted estimates ranged from 6 to 9 percentage points difference favoring the C.L.I.M.B. program). There was no significant improvement in the secondary outcomes of utilizations in lower level of care and medications for OUD in C.L.I.M.B. facilities.

Conclusions

We found a reduction in readmission in the pilot facilities between the two periods, but the results were not statistically significant compared with the comparison facilities and the utilization of lower level of care services remained low. Even though providers in the pilot OUD treatment facilities actively worked with health plans to standardize care for patients with OUD, more strategies are needed to improve treatment engagement and retention after an inpatient detoxification.

Introduction

Almost 500,000 Americans died from an opioid-related overdose between 1999 and 2019 [1]. Although rates of opioid-related U.S. hospital discharges including detoxification services decreased from 31.6 to 27.4 per 100,000 in the general population between 1993 and 2016 [2], among individuals who received treatments for opioid use disorder (OUD) in the prior 12 months, the use of inpatient addiction treatment increased from 38% to 52% from 2004 to 2013 [3]. Rarely an inpatient detoxification admission results in a complete navigation of the inpatient treatment system [4]. Among inpatient detoxification patients during 2003–2011, only 13% received rehabilitation during inpatient care and up to 14% were discharges against medical advice [5]. Initiating medications for OUD (MOUD) during a hospital admission [6] or continued patient navigation service after discharge [7] have been found to reduce readmission in randomized controlled trials (RCTs). Methadone, naltrexone, and buprenorphine have been approved for the treatment of OUD, which are medications that can fully or partially function as an antagonist to the mu receptor in the nervous system [8]. However, tightly controlled trials in special settings are limited in generalizability. In real world settings, fewer than 20% to 30% of individuals in inpatient detoxification settings were offered MOUD [9, 10]. Because detoxification without further treatment only addresses physical dependence in the short term, relapse to opioid use and readmission are common [11]. It has been conjectured that because tolerance is reduced by detoxification, at the time of relapse the risk for overdose and death is high [12]. Evidence-based strategies—including increasing access to treatment and harm-reduction programs after the inpatient management of withdrawal—must be adapted and deployed to address the opioid epidemic and save lives [13, 14].

In the past few decades, OUD has been treated on an episodic basis with poor outcomes and high relapse rates [15–17]. Many patients and providers lament the mismanagement of OUD and unpreparedness of many treatment facilities to meet the special needs of patients

with histories of unemployment, homelessness, and psychiatric comorbidities [18, 19]. To address these issues, we need to consider the chronic relapsing course of the disease and design strategies for relapse prevention as well as withdrawal management in the community [20].

Grounded in the community-based chronic care model, a pilot program (Community-based Life-changing Individualized Medically assisted evidence-Based treatment [C.L.I.M.B.]) was implemented on 5/1/2018 and 12/1/2018, by the Blue Care Network (BCN) and Blue Cross Blue Shield of Michigan (BCBSM), respectively. The program emphasized the chronicity of the illness and utilized a smart phone application (app) to facilitate management of withdrawal symptoms in outpatient services and prevent relapses. It was an alternative utilization management process that allowed more time to be spent in the residential/domiciliary portion of treatments while mid-level and outpatient services could be extended even further out. This paper evaluated the impact of the program on inpatient detoxification readmission in 90 days after the discharge. The research question is: If the C.L.I.M.B. program is rolled out to facilities like the pilot facilities, will it reduce 90-day readmission among OUD patients who were initially treated in an inpatient setting? We hypothesized that the pilot program patients would experience more reduction in 90-day readmission (primary outcome) and increase in non-inpatient services utilization and medication for OUD (secondary outcomes) compared with patients in other facilities.

Methods

Design

Consistent with the quasi-experimental two-group pre-post design, the difference-in-differences (DID) method was used to ameliorate potential confounding bias [21, 22]. The underlying assumption of the DID method is that the change in readmission rates from pre- to post-period in comparison facilities is a good proxy of the counterfactual change in the pilot facilities had there been no pilot program (S1 Fig). The effect of interest is the average treatment effect on the treated which answers the question: for patients treated in the pilot facilities, was the program a cause for the change in readmission rate? On the probability scale, a DID method estimates the difference of risk differences (DRD); and on the odds ratio (OR) scale, a DID method estimates the ratio of ORs (ROR). The pre-and post-periods for the BCN (a health maintenance organization [HMO]) patients were 7/1/2016 to 4/30/2018 and 5/1/2018 to 8/31/2019; the corresponding periods for the BCBSM (a preferred provider organization [PPO]) patients were 2/1/2017 to 11/30/2018 and 12/1/2018 to 3/30/2020. In the post-period, another substance use treatment program implemented a program like C.L.I.M.B.; thus, to avoid contamination, patients whose index inpatient detoxification occurred at that site in the post-period were excluded (Fig 1). The pilot program was approved by the BCN and BCBSM medical directors, and the current evaluation was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Michigan State University as non-human subject research (STUDY00000846).

Patients

Patients 18 years or older, who had a hospital-based detoxification inpatient stay for a diagnosis of OUD in any of the two periods were included in the study. To ensure data completeness, a patient had to be enrolled in the health plan for 6 or more months before the index inpatient detoxification to capture baseline comorbidity; and the index inpatient detoxification did not occur within 90-days of each period's end date. Patients' insurance membership file, medical (inpatient, outpatient, office-based encounters), and pharmacy claims from 1/1/2016 to 3/30/2020 were used to identify these patients.

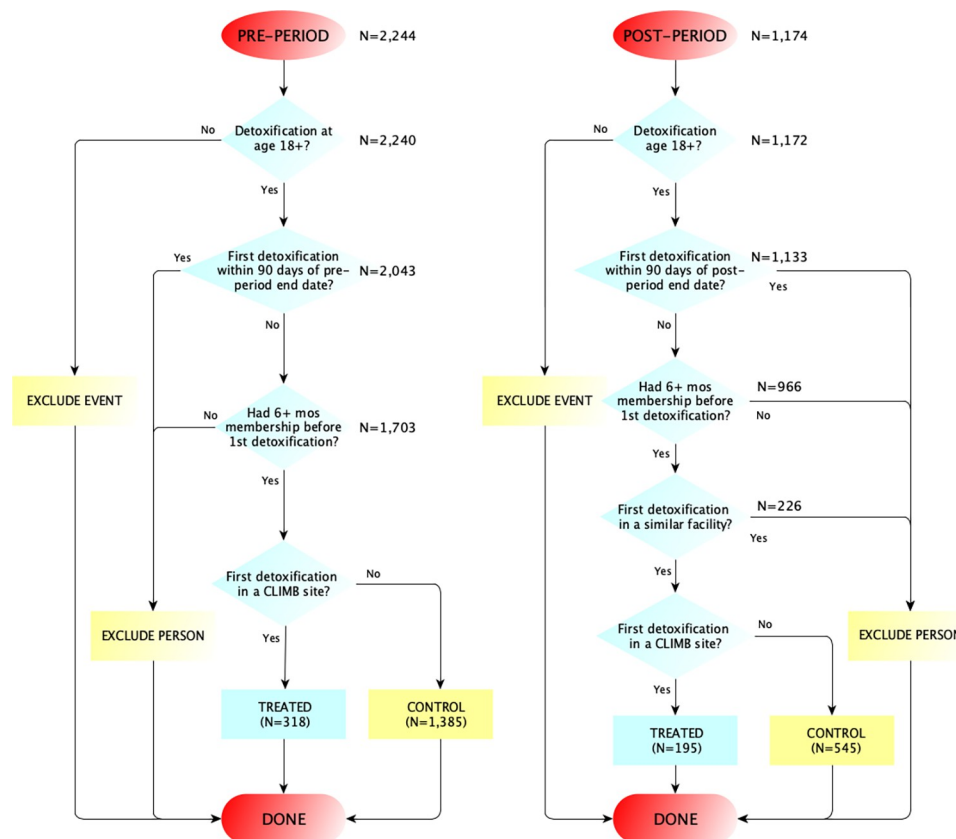


Fig 1. Patient inclusion and exclusion criteria and sample sizes in the pre- and post-periods.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278208.g001>

Intervention

Following ASAM guidelines [23, 24], the C.L.I.M.B. facilities, which are addiction treatment facilities affiliated with two hospitals, included services for the continuum of OUD cycle (S1 Fig), including detoxification, residential service, partial hospitalization/intensive outpatient service, outpatient service, MOUD, and a modified smartphone app, called A-CHESS, originated in 2011 at the University of Wisconsin Center for Health Enablement Support System (CHESS), which is a comprehensive tool based on the self-determination theory [25] to help patients with substance use disorders (SUDs) succeed in recovery (S1 Appendix).

Prior to the pilot program implementation, providers in the two facilities provided the same services as other OUD treatment facilities. During the implementation, they agreed to follow the C.L.I.M.B. codified protocol (detailed in the supplemental materials) with an emphasis on the master-treatment-plan development, family/system assessment, warm hand-off, completion of tasks regardless of length of stay, and the use of A-CHESS. The protocol included planning for a suitable recovery environment and initiating MOUD if appropriate. Evidence-based pharmacotherapy options such as Buprenorphine and Naltrexone may be considered. These medications that in essence block or partially block the mu reception decrease the effect of opioids and give a neutral reward for use of the intoxicating substance [26].

Key features of A-CHESS [27] included: 1) a “Help” button linked to the patient’s preapproved supporters, 2) positive and potentially distracting games, and audio-video relaxation recording; 3) cognitive behavioral therapy boosters; 4) functionality monitoring with self-

assessment tools; 5) a global positioning system location tracker that will initiate a patient-defined action (e.g., contacting sober coach) when s/he approaches a high-risk location, and 6) just-in-time feedback via a counselor dashboard.

Comparison group

All other OUD treatment facilities (could be a hospital or a standalone SUD treatment facility) in the U.S. that BCBSM and BCN members attended for inpatient detoxification in the study period constituted the comparison group. The usual care available at each facility varied and was expected to be representative of current practice in the field. Not all facilities covered the continua of all levels of care (LOCs).

Main measures

Primary outcome. 90-day inpatient detoxification readmission after an index inpatient detoxification discharge at any facility. A key purpose of the pilot was to reduce relapse and readmission by allowing patients a longer domiciliary stay if needed. Readmission was identified by the same method as the index inpatient detoxification: any inpatient stay with a diagnosis of F11.x or F11.xx using the International Classification of Diseases, 10th version, Clinical Modification (ICD-10-CM) codes, and revenue codes 01x6 (x = 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5).

Secondary outcomes. Other ASAM LOCs, including intensive outpatient services, partial hospitalization services, domiciliary behavioral treatment, behavioral therapy, outpatient services, and MOUD. Because the first 30-day post discharge is crucial for treatment entry and engagement, we measured the receipt of these services between day 1 and day 30 after the discharge of the index detoxification. MOUD was identified using National Drug Codes in pharmacy claims and the Current Procedural Terminology codes; and revenue codes and/or procedure codes were used to find LOC 1.0–2.5 services (the list of these codes is available upon request).

Treatment groups. The National Provider Identifier codes for the two pilot facilities were used to identify patients in the pilot group. Patients in the other treatment facilities were the comparison except those in a facility that implemented a similar pilot program in the post period.

Comorbidity. The Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality Clinical Classification Software Refined version (v2021.2) [28] based on ICD-10-CM codes was used to find in medical claims comorbid conditions in the 6 months prior to the index inpatient detoxification in each period. Mood disorders, anxiety-, fear-, trauma- or stressor-related disorders [29], alcohol-, cannabis-, sedative-, stimulant- hallucinogen- or inhalant-related disorders [30], and suicidal ideation/attempt or intentional self-harm [31] frequently cooccur with OUD and may increase the complexities of disease management. Other non-SUD comorbid conditions, including neoplasms [32], endocrine, nutritional and metabolic diseases [33], and diseases of the nervous, circulatory, respiratory, digestive, musculoskeletal system, or genitourinary systems, are used to control for patients' chronic conditions [34]. Emergency room visits [35] in the 6 months prior to the index inpatient detoxification in each period were identified using revenue codes 045x (x = 0–9).

Covariates. Patient's age, sex, HMO or PPO plan types, and residential zip codes were extracted from health plan enrollment files. The 5-digit zip codes were linked to the census tracts using the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development zip code crosswalk files [36] where a census tract with the highest residential ratio was chosen when multiple tracts were within the same zip code [37]. Past research found that living in a disadvantaged neighborhood was associated with worse health conditions and increased healthcare utilizations.

We used the 2018 Area Deprivation Index (ADI) [38, 39], the 2015 Childhood Opportunity Index (COI) [40], and the 2018 Social Vulnerability Index (SVI) [41] to approximate the neighborhood characteristics and as proxies to patient socioeconomic status. Higher ADI rankings and SVI scores indicate more disadvantaged neighborhoods; but higher COI scores indicate more opportunities. All indices were transformed to have a range from 0 to 100.

Analytic approach

We compared the differences in covariates and comorbidities between the C.L.I.M.B. and comparison groups in the pre- and post-periods using chi-square tests for categorical variables and t-tests for continuous variables. As in the tradition for propensity score (PS) analysis, we also presented the standardized differences (difference divided by the pooled standard deviation) between the two groups. When the absolute value of the standardized difference is greater than 0.1, it is indicative of non-negligible difference [42]. We estimated the DID effects using six statistical methods to triangulate evidence: 1) multivariable logistic regression adjustment (RA) controlling for comorbidities and covariates; 2) augmented inverse probability weighted (IPW) estimation [43] where covariates for the outcome and the PS models were selected using logistic lasso [44]; 3) IPW estimation where the PS was estimated using logistic regressions controlling for the same covariates in the RA model; 4) IPW-RA double robust method [45]; 5) bias-corrected single nearest neighbor matching method [46]; and 6) PS matching with a caliper 0.2. Each of these statistical methods has its own advantages and disadvantages. For example, the IPW and PS methods require the PS model to be correctly specified and the RA method assumes the outcome model is correctly specified. No one method clearly dominates others in terms of potential bias and relative efficiency. The 95% confidence intervals (CI) were estimated using the percentile-based bootstrap CI with 1,000 bootstrapped samples. All analyses were performed in Stata version 17 [47].

Sensitivity analyses

We performed two sets of sensitivity analysis. First, we excluded 123 patients (236 admissions) who were in both pre- and post-periods, because the analyses may be contaminated by the correlations between observations for the same patients, especially when the patient was in different treatment groups across periods. Secondly, many RCTs include stringent inclusion/exclusion criteria. We applied some of the patient-selection criteria of the MOUD + A-CHES trial [27] that can be defined using our data to assess the robustness of the main-analysis estimates in a selected sub-population who had no acute medical problems with immediate inpatient treatment needs, no history of psychotic disorders, and not pregnant.

Results

A total of 2,320 unique patients with 2,443 inpatient detoxification admissions in the pre- and post-periods were included in the main analyses. Table 1 showed that in the pre-period, C.L.I.M.B. patients were more likely to be in the HMO plans, had more mood disorders, and diseases of the musculoskeletal system than patients in comparison facilities; however, in the post-period, C.L.I.M.B. patients had fewer other substance-related disorders, or diseases of the nervous or digestive systems than patients in the comparison facilities, mainly due to increased prevalence of these conditions in the comparison group. The largest and most significant differences between the groups were at the neighborhood level. C.L.I.M.B. patients were more likely to live in one the 100 largest metropolitan areas, and had lower ADI, higher COI, and lower SVI scores, i.e., they were from relatively more well-to-do neighborhoods.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics, medical claims six months prior to detoxification in the pre- and post-period.

| | Pre-period | | | Post-period | | |
|---|------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|
| | Comparison | C.L.I.M.B. ^d | p-value ^c | Comparison | C.L.I.M.B. ^d | p-value ^c |
| | N = 1,385 | N = 318 | | N = 545 | N = 195 | |
| Age category | N (%) | N (%) | | N (%) | N (%) | |
| 18–<25 | 407 (29.4) | 88 (27.7) | 0.636 | 154 (28.3) | 53 (27.2) | 0.47 |
| 25–<35 | 364 (26.3) | 90 (28.3) | | 147 (27.0) | 45 (23.1) | |
| 35–<45 | 212 (15.3) | 42 (13.2) | | 95 (17.4) | 43 (22.1) | |
| 45+ | 402 (29.0) | 98 (30.8) | | 149 (27.3) | 54 (27.7) | |
| Female | 467 (33.7) | 96 (30.2) | 0.228 | 176 (32.3) | 69 (35.4) | 0.43 |
| HMO | 245 (17.7) | 154 (48.4) | <0.001 | 57 (10.5) | 87 (44.6) | <0.001 |
| Comorbidity 6 months prior to index detoxification | | | | | | |
| Had no claims | 156 (11.3) | 34 (10.7) | 0.770 | 51 (9.4) | 17 (8.7) | 0.79 |
| Had inpatient detoxification | 78 (5.6) | 18 (5.7) | 0.984 | 48 (8.8) | 15 (7.7) | 0.63 |
| Had emergency room visits | 708 (51.1) | 160 (50.3) | 0.796 | 270 (49.5) | 89 (45.6) | 0.35 |
| Had opioid use disorder diagnosis | 677 (48.9) | 160 (50.3) | 0.645 | 295 (54.1) | 102 (52.3) | 0.66 |
| Substance-related disorders ^a | 331 (23.9) | 72 (22.6) | 0.634 | 174 (31.9) | 44 (22.6) | 0.01 |
| Mood disorders ^b | 550 (39.7) | 148 (46.5) | 0.026 | 236 (43.3) | 84 (43.1) | 0.96 |
| Alcohol-related disorders | 260 (18.8) | 68 (21.4) | 0.287 | 135 (24.8) | 36 (18.5) | 0.07 |
| Anxiety/fear/trauma/stressor-related disorders | 585 (42.2) | 145 (45.6) | 0.275 | 257 (47.2) | 84 (43.1) | 0.33 |
| Suicidal ideation/attempt/intentional self-harm | 130 (9.4) | 31 (9.7) | 0.842 | 45 (8.3) | 12 (6.2) | 0.35 |
| Neoplasm | 83 (6.0) | 18 (5.7) | 0.821 | 32 (5.9) | 11 (5.6) | 0.91 |
| Endocrine, nutritional, and metabolic diseases | 418 (30.2) | 100 (31.4) | 0.658 | 182 (33.4) | 62 (31.8) | 0.68 |
| Diseases of the nervous system | 569 (41.1) | 120 (37.7) | 0.273 | 229 (42.0) | 66 (33.8) | 0.05 |
| Diseases of the circulatory system | 448 (32.3) | 92 (28.9) | 0.238 | 185 (33.9) | 57 (29.2) | 0.23 |
| Diseases of the respiratory system | 381 (27.5) | 83 (26.1) | 0.611 | 155 (28.4) | 58 (29.7) | 0.73 |
| Diseases of the digestive system | 350 (25.3) | 75 (23.6) | 0.531 | 152 (27.9) | 38 (19.5) | 0.02 |
| Diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue | 653 (47.1) | 130 (40.9) | 0.043 | 238 (43.7) | 78 (40.0) | 0.37 |
| Diseases of the genitourinary system | 280 (20.2) | 62 (19.5) | 0.773 | 118 (21.7) | 36 (18.5) | 0.35 |
| Injury, poisoning and certain other consequences of external causes | 455 (32.9) | 119 (37.4) | 0.120 | 177 (32.5) | 58 (29.7) | 0.48 |
| Live in one of the 100 largest metro areas | 965 (69.7) | 270 (84.9) | <0.001 | 377 (69.2) | 169 (86.7) | <0.001 |
| Neighborhood characteristics | Mean (SD) ^g | Mean (SD) ^g | | Mean (SD) ^g | Mean (SD) ^g | |
| Mean ADI state rank ^e | 48.4 (21.6) | 44.8 (23.9) | 0.009 | 51.3 (22.3) | 44.0 (24.4) | <0.001 |
| Mean ADI national rank ^e | 59.8 (19.4) | 57.1 (22.1) | 0.033 | 61.1 (20.3) | 55.6 (23.4) | <0.01 |
| Mean childhood opportunity index | 54.1 (20.8) | 56.0 (23.4) | 0.149 | 51.7 (21.6) | 57.8 (24.2) | <0.01 |
| Mean SVI socioeconomic score ^f | 44.9 (20.2) | 42.0 (22.4) | 0.022 | 47.0 (20.5) | 39.5 (22.9) | <0.001 |
| Mean SVI household/disability score | 52.8 (18.2) | 48.0 (18.7) | <0.001 | 54.1 (17.7) | 46.0 (19.5) | <0.001 |
| Mean SVI minority/language score | 31.8 (17.7) | 35.3 (16.8) | 0.001 | 35.0 (19.0) | 35.6 (17.3) | 0.66 |
| Mean SVI housing/transportation score | 39.9 (14.6) | 36.0 (14.7) | <0.001 | 42.3 (15.9) | 34.1 (14.0) | <0.001 |

^a Including cannabis-, sedative-, stimulant-hallucinogen- or inhalant-related substances^b Including depressive disorders, bipolar disorders, and other specified mood disorders^c P-values are based on chi-square tests for categorical variables and t-tests for continuous variables^d C.L.I.M.B. = Community-based Life-changing Individualized Medically assisted evidence-Based treatment^e ADI = area deprivation index^f SVI = social vulnerability index^g SD = standard deviation<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278208.t001>

Table 2. Standardized difference (SD) between C.L.I.M.B.^a and comparison in the pre- and post-period respectively.

| | Pre-period | | Post-period | |
|---|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| | Raw SD ^d | Weighted SD ^d | Raw SD ^d | Weighted SD ^d |
| Age category | | | | |
| 18–<25 | 0.038 | –0.078 | 0.024 | 0.019 |
| 25–<35 | –0.046 | 0.025 | 0.089 | –0.198 |
| 35–<45 | 0.059 | –0.047 | –0.119 | 0.105 |
| 45+ | –0.039 | 0.090 | –0.008 | 0.086 |
| Female | 0.075 | –0.099 | –0.066 | 0.168 |
| HMO | –0.757 | –0.040 | –0.933 | –0.060 |
| Comorbidity 6 months prior to index detoxification | | | | |
| Had no claims | 0.018 | 0.021 | 0.022 | –0.083 |
| Had inpatient detoxification | –0.001 | –0.030 | 0.040 | –0.046 |
| Had emergency room visits | 0.016 | –0.038 | 0.078 | –0.070 |
| Had opioid use disorder diagnosis | –0.029 | 0.025 | 0.037 | –0.120 |
| Substance-related disorders ^b | 0.030 | –0.051 | 0.206 | –0.161 |
| Mood disorders ^c | –0.139 | 0.143 | 0.005 | –0.017 |
| Alcohol-related disorders | –0.066 | 0.028 | 0.150 | –0.129 |
| Anxiety/fear/trauma/stressor-related disorders | –0.068 | 0.032 | 0.082 | –0.078 |
| Suicidal ideation/attempt/intentional self-harm | –0.012 | –0.018 | 0.079 | –0.187 |
| Neoplasm | 0.014 | 0.002 | 0.010 | 0.005 |
| Endocrine, nutritional, and metabolic diseases | –0.028 | 0.062 | 0.034 | –0.055 |
| Diseases of the nervous system | 0.068 | –0.041 | 0.167 | –0.223 |
| Diseases of the circulatory system | 0.073 | –0.039 | 0.101 | –0.135 |
| Diseases of the respiratory system | 0.032 | –0.061 | –0.029 | –0.007 |
| Diseases of the digestive system | 0.039 | –0.037 | 0.193 | –0.192 |
| Diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue | 0.126 | –0.103 | 0.074 | –0.094 |
| Diseases of the genitourinary system | 0.018 | –0.015 | 0.079 | –0.026 |
| Injury, poisoning and certain other consequences of external causes | –0.097 | 0.081 | 0.059 | –0.063 |
| Live in one of the 100 largest metro areas | –0.344 | 0.302 | –0.404 | 0.274 |
| Neighborhood characteristics | | | | |
| Mean ADI state rank ^e | 0.163 | 0.022 | 0.317 | –0.130 |
| Mean ADI national rank ^e | 0.132 | 0.029 | 0.261 | –0.138 |
| Mean childhood opportunity index | –0.090 | –0.078 | –0.274 | 0.093 |
| Mean SVI socioeconomic score ^f | 0.142 | 0.058 | 0.355 | –0.143 |
| Mean SVI household/disability score | 0.265 | 0.019 | 0.443 | –0.258 |
| Mean SVI minority/language score | –0.202 | 0.168 | –0.037 | 0.123 |
| Mean SVI housing/transportation score | 0.267 | –0.068 | 0.529 | –0.136 |

^a C.L.I.M.B. = Community-based Life-changing Individualized Medically assisted evidence-Based treatment^b Including cannabis-, sedative-, stimulant-hallucinogen- or inhalant-related substances^c Including depressive disorders, bipolar disorders, and other specified mood disorders^d SD = standardized difference, comparison group minus treatment group divided by the pooled standard error^e ADI: area deprivation index^f SVI: social vulnerability index<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278208.t002>

Before using the PS for adjustments, the raw standardized differences (Table 2) showed consistent patterns as in Table 1. After weighting, the standardized differences were reduced to less than 0.1 for all except for 4 variables (mood disorder, disease of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue, living in one of the 100 largest metropolitan areas, and mean SVI

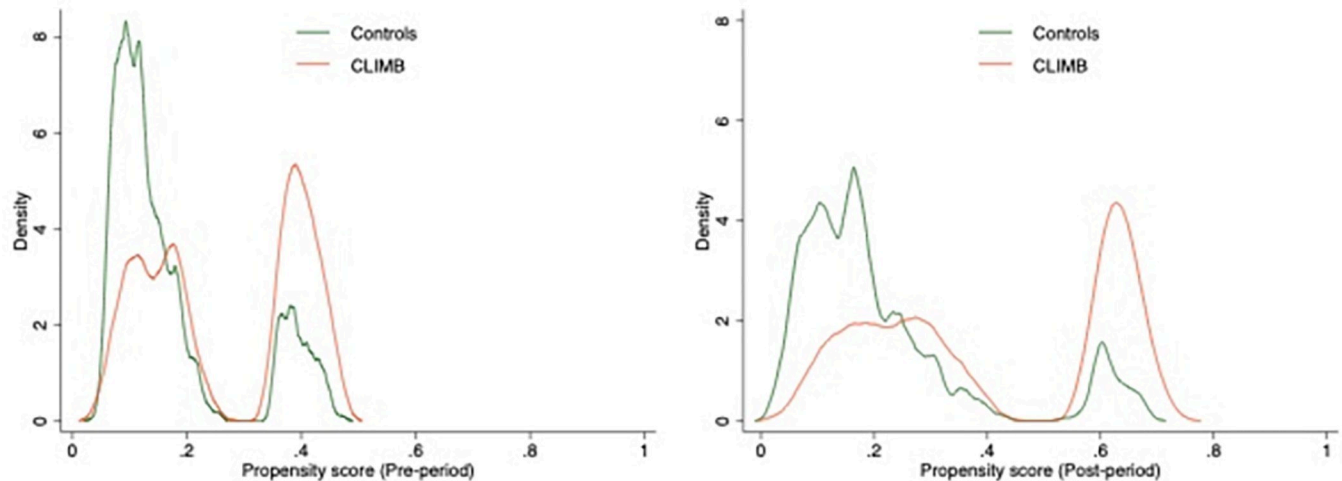


Fig 2. Propensity scores for participating in the pilot program in the pre- and post-periods. Using the plug-in lasso selected covariates from the covariates and the interactions between continuous and discrete covariates in Table 1. The selected variables for the pre-period propensity score are HMO×household/disability score, HMO×minority/language score, and HMO×housing/transportation score. The selected variables for the post-period propensity score are HMO×childhood opportunity index, HMO×minority/language score, and HMO×housing/transportation score.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278208.g002>

minority/language score, Table 2 column 2) in the pre-period; however, weighting did not improve balance in the post-period (17 variables had standardized difference greater than 0.1, Table 2 column 4). The residual imbalance was adjusted using these 4 and 17 variables in the nearest neighbor matching method. The few variables selected by the logistic lasso generated a bi-modal PS distribution (Fig 2) but there was good overlap between the PS of C.L.I.M.B. and comparison groups.

All six methods (Table 3) gave similar estimated DRDs and RORs between groups over time. Before the pilot implementation, patients in C.L.I.M.B. facilities had statistically significantly higher 90-day readmission rates than patients in comparison facilities (17.0% vs. 10.2 to 11.7% estimated by various adjustment methods); however, after the pilot implementation, readmission rates decreased significantly in the C.L.I.M.B. patients to 12.3% whereas the adjusted rates in comparison facilities did not change significantly (varying from 11.8% to 15.3%). The DRDs and RORs were not statistically significant (adjusted DRDs ranged from 6 to 9 percentage points favoring the pilot group). Compared with that in the pre-period, patients' profile changed a little in both groups, although the changes were not statistically significant in the C.L.I.M.B. group (S1 Table). The two sensitivity analyses ($N = 2,197$ observations in S2 Table and $N = 2,121$ observations in S3 Table) led to results qualitatively the same as the main analyses.

For the secondary outcomes of service utilization (Table 4), patients in comparison facilities experienced an increase in intensive outpatient care, partial hospitalization, and behavioral therapy within 30 days of discharge between pre- and post-periods, whereas patients in C.L.I.M.B. facilities did not. In both periods, patients in comparison facilities had higher partial hospitalization, lower outpatient services, and lower MOUD compared to patients in C.L.I.M.B. facilities; and in the post-period, patients in comparison facilities had higher behavioral therapy services than patients in C.L.I.M.B. facilities. When we adjusted for patient characteristics using logistic regressions, we found statistically significant difference in the RORs for behavioral therapy services received by patients in comparison vs. C.L.I.M.B. facilities, favoring the comparison facilities (Table 5).

Table 3. Readmission rate in pre- and post-period and C.L.I.M.B.^a and comparison groups.

| | Pre-period | | | | Post-period | | | | Treatment Effect | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------------|------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|---------------------|------------------|---------------------|
| | C.L.I.M.B. ^a | Comparison | RD ^b | OR ^c | C.L.I.M.B. ^a | Comparison | RD ^b | OR ^c | DRD ^d | 95% CI ^f | ROR ^e | 95% CI ^f |
| Unadjusted | 17.0 | 10.6 | 6.4 | 1.72 | 12.3 | 10.6 | 1.7 | 1.18 | -4.6 | [-11.8, 2.1] | 0.68 | [0.37, 1.26] |
| Logistic | 17.0 | 10.2 | 6.8 | 1.85 | 12.3 | 11.8 | 0.5 | 1.05 | -6.3 | [-14.3, 1.4] | 0.74 | [0.39, 1.39] |
| AIPW Lasso ^g | 17.0 | 10.5 | 6.5 | 1.74 | 12.3 | 12.1 | 0.02 | 1.01 | -5.9 | [-14.4, 2.2] | 0.61 | [0.28, 1.30] |
| IPW ^h | 17.0 | 10.5 | 6.5 | 1.74 | 12.3 | 13.3 | -1.0 | 0.92 | -7.4 | [-15.9, 0.3] | 0.53 | [0.25, 1.05] |
| IPWRA ⁱ | 17.0 | 10.5 | 6.5 | 1.74 | 12.3 | 12.9 | -0.6 | 0.95 | -7.1 | [-14.7, 1.1] | 0.54 | [0.26, 1.09] |
| NNMATCH ^j | 17.0 | 11.7 | 5.3 | 1.55 | 12.3 | 14.8 | -2.5 | 0.81 | -7.8 | [-17.5, 4.1] | 0.52 | [0.22, 1.70] |
| PSMATCH ^k | 17.0 | 11.0 | 6.0 | 1.66 | 12.3 | 15.3 | -3.0 | 0.78 | -9.0 | [-19.0, 4.5] | 0.47 | [0.20, 1.70] |

^a C.L.I.M.B. = Community-based Life-changing Individualized Medically assisted evidence-Based treatment^b RD = risk difference^c OR = odds ratio^d DRD = difference of risk differences^e ROR = ratio of odds ratios^f CI = confidence interval. Percentile based on 1,000 bootstrapped samples.^g AIPW = augmented inverse-probability weighting^h IPW = inverse probability weightingⁱ IPWRA = inverse probability weighted regression adjustment^j NNMATCH = nearest-neighbor matching^k PSMATCH = propensity-score matching<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278208.t003>

Discussion

The ASAM criteria advocate for individualized assessment-driven treatment and flexible use of services across a broad range of care, which can be offered by a single or multiple providers with “(1) seamless transfer between levels of care, (2) philosophical congruence among the various providers of care; and (3) timely arrival of the patient’s clinical record at the next provider” [48]. The C.L.I.M.B. program was designed using these principles. Although there was a significant decrease in 90-day readmission rates in the C.L.I.M.B. facilities from 17% to 12% from the pre- to post-period, compared with patients in comparison facilities the reductions

Table 4. Proportions of patients receiving treatments within 30-day of the discharge date of the index inpatient detoxification.

| | Pre-period | | Post-period | |
|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| | Comparison | C.L.I.M.B. ^a | Comparison | C.L.I.M.B. ^a |
| | N = 1,385 | N = 318 | N = 545 | N = 195 |
| Intensive outpatient | 238 (17.2%) | 54 (17.0%) | 121 (22.2%) | 33 (16.9%) |
| Partial hospitalization | 156 (11.3%) | 11 (3.5%) | 83 (15.2%) | 4 (2.1%) |
| Domiciliary partial residential | 36 (2.6%) | 14 (4.4%) | 21 (3.9%) | 6 (3.1%) |
| Outpatient | 477 (34.4%) | 150 (47.2%) | 180 (33.0%) | 84 (43.1%) |
| Behavioral therapy | 381 (27.5%) | 84 (26.4%) | 201 (36.9%) | 37 (19.0%) |
| Medication for addiction treatment | 269 (19.4%) | 93 (29.2%) | 102 (18.7%) | 51 (26.2%) |
| Buprenorphine | 147 (10.6%) | 56 (17.6%) | 46 (8.4%) | 28 (14.4%) |
| Naltrexone oral or injectable | 133 (9.6%) | 42 (13.2%) | 51 (9.4%) | 24 (12.3%) |
| Injectable naltrexone | 98 (7.1%) | 23 (7.2%) | 34 (6.2%) | 15 (7.7%) |
| Oral naltrexone | 89 (6.4%) | 38 (11.9%) | 31 (5.7%) | 15 (7.7%) |

^a C.L.I.M.B. = Community-based Life-changing Individualized Medically assisted evidence-Based treatment<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278208.t004>

Table 5. Difference-in-differences analyses of other treatments for opioid use disorder (OUD) 30 days after discharge using logistic regression adjusted by covariates.

| | DRD ^a | ROR ^b | 95% CI ^c of ROR |
|---------------------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------------------|
| Intensive outpatient | −4.0 | 0.75 | [0.43, 1.29] |
| Partial hospitalization | −12.2 | 0.43 | [0.13, 1.44] |
| Domiciliary partial residential | −2.9 | 0.40 | [0.13, 1.27] |
| Outpatient | −1.5 | 0.87 | [0.57, 1.33] |
| Behavioral therapy | −18.9 | 0.42 | [0.25, 0.68] |
| Medication for OUD | −1.2 | 0.88 | [0.54, 1.43] |
| Buprenorphine | −4.0 | 1.00 | [0.54, 1.86] |
| Naltrexone oral or injectable | 2.9 | 0.93 | [0.49, 1.78] |
| Injectable naltrexone | 2.7 | 1.27 | [0.57, 2.84] |
| Oral naltrexone | −0.6 | 0.67 | [0.31, 1.45] |

^a DRD = difference of risk differences^b ROR = ratio of odds ratios^c CI = confidence interval. Percentile based on 1,000 bootstrapped samples.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278208.t005>

were not statistically significant. There was no significant improvement in secondary outcomes, i.e., utilizations in lower LOC and MOUD in the C.L.I.M.B. facilities.

Compared with a small one-center pre-post study of buprenorphine treatment initiation in an intensive inpatient program, the C.L.I.M.B. program had lower outpatient utilization [49]. There is limited literature on the impact of community-based OUD chronic care models on reducing detoxification readmission after the index discharge. In a commercially insured population in the U.S., those entering care in an inpatient setting with only short-term inpatient stay without MOUD had an overdose rate of 4.3 per 100 person-years and an all-cause rehospitalization rate of 74.1 per 100 person-years [50]. A small retrospective study in an urban academic hospital found that in-hospital initiation of opioid agonist treatment through a hospital-based SUD consultation-liaison team did not reduce the 180-day all-cause rehospitalization compared with usual care [51]. However, a large RCT among eligible medical/surgical patients in the same setting with a more comprehensive patient-navigation service led to lower incidences of all-cause readmission in 30-, 90-, 180- and 365-days, but no significant difference in positive urine drug test [7]. These studies suggest treating OUD on an episodic basis without integrating all levels of care is unlikely to reduce readmission for detoxification.

Several reasons may explain our largely null findings. First, the pilot program was implemented in a period when many SUD facilities were undergoing changes in practice. While the pilot facilities had all ASAM LOC services, the comparison facilities may have varied cross-sectionally and over time. The National Survey of Substance Abuse Treatment Services (NSSAT) data showed that the proportion of SUD facilities in the U.S. that offered MOUD increased from 10% in 2007 to 36% in 2016 [52]. In a secret shopper audit study in 2019 Beetham et al. found 29% of residential treatment programs offer opioid agonist treatment [53]. Using the 2016 and 2019 NSSAT data, we found that the percent of facilities that offered a broad range of services had increased from 15% in 2016 to 21% in 2019. Hence, the comparison facilities may have experienced improvements in services in the study period. Although the rates in outpatient and MOUD treatments were higher in the C.L.I.M.B. facilities in both periods, the comparison facilities in our study had an increase in intensive outpatient care, partial hospitalization, and behavioral therapy within 30-day of discharge between the two periods, which might have explained part of the null findings. Through our connection with the

providers in one large facility, we knew they initiated a similar program like the C.L.I.M.B. in the same period, and for that reason we excluded it from our post-pilot period.

Second, one of the key components of the pilot program was the integration of the smartphone app A-CHESS to the clinical practices. The C.L.I.M.B. therapist had some responsibility in tracking patients outside the therapy sessions and actively responding to “no show” appointments with identified contingencies of the treatment plan, such as contacting the pre-identified sober support persons to get the patient back on track. Unfortunately, few patients used A-CHESS after they signed up on the phone at discharge (confirmed by the A-CHESS data). Although access to a smartphone may be a limiting factor to patients with limited resources, providers’ feedback suggested that patients preferred other existing apps because the A-CHESS was not free and did not provide the feedbacks salient to the patients, e.g., money saved due to abstinence. It became clear that patient acceptance and provider integration of an app were needed for its successful utilization [54].

Third, the pilot program aimed to recruit 300 patients in the program, however, fewer than 200 patients enrolled. Due to funding termination of the pilot program, this evaluation was limited to the 16-month period after the program initiation. A post-hoc sample size analysis showed that in order to detect the observed effect size of the difference in readmission before and after the pilot with 80% power, we needed more than 5,000 patients in the two groups [55]. For this reason, findings from this paper should not be construed as evidence for denying services by insurers.

There are some strengths of our study. Although RCTs are deemed the gold standard to establish evidence of efficacy of a treatment, practitioners tend to find trial-tested treatments less effective in the real world. Community-based programs do not have strict inclusion/exclusion criteria as RCTs and use of a quasi-experimental design such as the DID method is a potentially valid approach to evaluating real world interventions.

Second, we used multiple statistical estimators to quantify the causal effect of interest and the estimates were largely consistent with each other, which was reassuring. Using a clearly defined causal effect of interest, i.e., the average treatment effect on the treated, which answered the specific question: “for patients treated in the pilot facilities, was the program a cause for the change in readmission rates?”, we did not lose sight of the goal of the evaluation.

Our study has several limitations. Foremost, although prevention of readmission was an important goal for the insurers, it may not have represented better outcomes for patients. Compared with measures of relapse in RCTs (e.g., 4 consecutive weeks of opioid use by urine toxicology or self-report, or 7 consecutive days of self-reported use in Lee et al. [56]), inpatient admissions do not capture all relapses. However, in the real world, health plans rely on these data to identify target population for quality improvement.

Secondly, a key untestable assumption for the DID methods is the parallel trend assumption (S2 Fig), i.e., the change in 90-day readmissions from pre- to post-periods in the comparison facilities is a good proxy for the counterfactual change in pilot facilities had there been no pilot intervention. In our data, the readmission rates in comparison facilities over the study period remained virtually unchanged. However, in the U.S. population from 2008 to 2016 there was significant decline in the rate of opioid-related discharges with detoxification services during hospitalization [2] which, although not a direct measure of readmission, presumably was indicative of declines in readmission for detoxification as well. As the treatment modality shifted toward MOUD delivered in an outpatient setting, it is possible that the change in comparison facilities did not reflect the counterfactual change that the pilot facilities would have experienced. Thus, our DID estimates may have over-estimated the true effect.

Thirdly, we may not have controlled for all relevant confounding factors in our analysis, including race/ethnicity. In addition, the disadvantaged neighborhood characteristics that we

used to partially capture patients' socioeconomic resources may have been misclassified. Based on our proxies, patients in the C.L.I.M.B. facilities lived in areas with higher psychosocial resources. However, higher proportions of patients in C.L.I.M.B. facilities were enrolled in HMO than PPO compared with patients in comparison facilities. It is generally true that HMO patients had lower socioeconomic resources, which was not reflected in our area-level measures. On the other hand, in both periods, comparison facilities had lower outpatient services and lower MOUD compared with pilot facilities, which is consistent with lower availability of treatment options. For the treatment to reach patients in remote rural areas or areas with few resources, better strategies need to be devised.

Fourthly, our patients were all privately insured and the pilot program that was approved by one insurer through less restriction in the length of detoxification stay and medication use may not generalize to other populations and settings. The findings that the C.L.I.M.B. patients mostly came from well-to-do neighborhood also suggested potential bias in the evaluation as the families of such participants often had more resources to get their relatives into other treatment facilities after leaving the pilot program, which might be related to low follow-up in the pilot facilities. Although the program was designed to reduce costs eventually through better engagement of patients in all levels of care, the reduction of inpatient readmission may not always coincide with better health outcomes.

Finally, many patients came to the pilot facilities from afar and after leaving the facilities they may not have completed the full spectrum of care in the pilot program or benefit from all the services offered due to different barriers. The Vermont Hub-and-Spoke model of care may help remove some of these barriers [57]. Initiating buprenorphine during a hospital admission [6] or emergency room visit [58] may improve treatment entry in the community. A patient navigation service that started in the hospital and continued for 3 months after discharge was related to a significant reduction in 30-day readmission [7]. The currently active (though not recruiting due to the COVID-19) large cluster randomized trial HEALing (Helping to End Addiction Long-term) Communities study will involve criminal justice settings, syringe service programs, mental health/addiction treatment programs, primary care, other general medical and behavioral health settings, and recovery programs to implement a broad array of evidence-based interventions through a community-driven process [59]. Finding factors that improve treatment engagement and retention is an important next step in the design for effective intervention in the future.

Clinical implication

The reason that OUD needs to be treated as a chronic condition is due to the complexity of the disorder. Individuals with OUD cannot during the withdrawal (detoxification) process learn the tasks needed to surmount the biologic and psychological aspects of the illness. The treatment to sustain wellness and provide education about the illness requires continued and frequent engagement for a sustained period. Being able to understand what has and will likely occur during the recovery process through thoughtful development of contingency planning is essential. Having insight into the psychological issues that may predate the actual dependence on the substance needs significant work at first and then continuous engagement for very long periods of time as well. These are all characteristics of chronic disease and chronic disease management principles. We found that even though health plans used alternative utilization management process that allowed more time to be spent in the residential/domiciliary and other mid-levels of care and providers agreed to use codified treatment plans, additional strategies need to be developed to encourage engagement and reduce readmission related to relapse.

Conclusions

Our study used a quasi-experimental design to evaluate the impact of a community-based program on reducing inpatient detoxification readmission. The pilot was designed based on a chronic care model for OUD in the community [17]. Although there was a reduction in readmission in the pilot facilities between the two periods, the utilization of lower level of care services remained low. Even though providers in the pilot OUD treatment facilities actively worked with health plans to standardize care for patients with OUD, more strategies are needed to improve treatment engagement and retention after an inpatient detoxification.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. Opioid chronic condition clinical pathway in weeks (w) and months (m).

(DOCX)

S2 Fig. Causal effects in a difference-in-differences analysis. Solid black lines for observed data, black dashed line for the estimated potential outcome for the pilot group and the red dotted line for bias using a pre-post design with only the pilot group data.

(DOCX)

S1 Table. Demographic characteristics, medical claims six months prior to the index detoxification between the pre- and post-period for each treatment group.

(DOCX)

S2 Table. Sensitivity analysis of 90-day readmission rate in pre- and post-period and C.L.I. M.B. and comparison groups, excluding patients belonging to two periods.

(DOCX)

S3 Table. Sensitivity analysis of 90-day readmission rate in pre- and post-period and C.L.I. M.B. and comparison groups, using some exclusion criteria of the MOUD + A-CHESS trial.

(DOCX)

S1 Appendix. C.L.I.M.B. pilot protocol.

(DOCX)

Acknowledgments

Michael Hoover, Informatics Delivery Lead (Contractor at BCBSM) assisted with data procurement and secure transfer.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Zhehui Luo, Canopy Roychoudhury, William Beecroft.

Data curation: Canopy Roychoudhury, James DiMaria, Cynthia M. Robinette, Purva H. Gore.

Formal analysis: Zhehui Luo, Rohon Roychoudhury.

Funding acquisition: Zhehui Luo.

Investigation: William S. Pompos.

Methodology: Zhehui Luo, William Beecroft.

Project administration: William S. Pompos, William Beecroft.

Supervision: William Beecroft.

Writing – original draft: Zhehui Luo, Canopy Roychoudhury.

Writing – review & editing: Canopy Roychoudhury, William S. Pompos, James DiMaria, Cynthia M. Robinette, Purva H. Gore, Rohon Roychoudhury, William Beecroft.

References

1. Mattson CL. Trends and Geographic Patterns in Drug and Synthetic Opioid Overdose Deaths—United States, 2013–2019. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2021;70. <https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm7006a4> PMID: 33571180
2. Peterson C, Xu L, Florence C, Mack KA. Opioid-related US hospital discharges by type, 1993–2016. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment.* 2019; 103: 9–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2019.05.003> PMID: 31229192
3. Saloner B, Karthikeyan S. Changes in Substance Abuse Treatment Use Among Individuals With Opioid Use Disorders in the United States, 2004–2013. *JAMA.* 2015; 314: 1515–1517. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2015.10345> PMID: 26462001
4. Morgan JR, Wang J, Barocas JA, Jaeger JL, Durham NN, Babakhanlou-Chase H, et al. Opioid overdose and inpatient care for substance use disorder care in Massachusetts. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment.* 2020; 112: 42–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2020.01.017> PMID: 32199545
5. Zhu H, Wu L-T. National trends and characteristics of inpatient detoxification for drug use disorders in the United States. *BMC Public Health.* 2018; 18: 1073. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-018-5982-8> PMID: 30157815
6. Liebschutz JM, Crooks D, Herman D, Anderson B, Tsui J, Meshesha LZ, et al. Buprenorphine treatment for hospitalized, opioid-dependent patients: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Intern Med.* 2014; 174: 1369–1376. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2014.2556> PMID: 25090173
7. Gryczynski J, Nordeck CD, Welsh C, Mitchell SG, O'Grady KE, Schwartz RP. Preventing hospital readmission for patients with comorbid substance use disorder: A randomized trial. *Annals of Internal Medicine.* 2021; 174: 899–909. <https://doi.org/10.7326/M20-5475> PMID: 33819055
8. Ghanem N, Dromgoole D, Hussein A, Jermyn RT. Review of medication-assisted treatment for opioid use disorder. *J Osteopath Med.* 2022; 122: 367–374. <https://doi.org/10.1515/jom-2021-0163> PMID: 35285220
9. Hartung DM, Markwardt S, Johnston K, Geddes J, Baker R, Leichtling G, et al. Association between treatment setting and outcomes among oregon medicaid patients with opioid use disorder: a retrospective cohort study. *Addiction Science & Clinical Practice.* 2022; 17: 45. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13722-022-00318-1> PMID: 35986384
10. Calcaterra SL, Martin M, Bottner R, Englander H, Weinstein Z, Weimer MB, et al. Management of opioid use disorder and associated conditions among hospitalized adults: A Consensus Statement from the Society of Hospital Medicine. *Journal of Hospital Medicine.* 2022; 17: 744–756. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jhm.12893> PMID: 35880813
11. Walley AY, Lodi S, Li Y, Bernson D, Babakhanlou-Chase H, Land T, et al. Association between mortality rates and medication and residential treatment after in-patient medically managed opioid withdrawal: a cohort analysis. *Addiction.* 2020; 115: 1496–1508. <https://doi.org/10.1111/add.14964> PMID: 32096908
12. Strang J, McCambridge J, Best D, Beswick T, Bearn J, Rees S, et al. Loss of tolerance and overdose mortality after inpatient opiate detoxification: follow up study. *BMJ.* 2003; 326: 959–960. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.326.7396.959> PMID: 12727768
13. Saloner B, McGinty EE, Beletsky L, Bluthenthal R, Beyrer C, Botticelli M, et al. A Public Health Strategy for the Opioid Crisis. *Public Health Rep.* 2018; 133: 24S–34S. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033354918793627> PMID: 30426871
14. Ballreich J, Mansour O, Hu E, Chingcuanco F, Pollack HA, Dowdy DW, et al. Modeling Mitigation Strategies to Reduce Opioid-Related Morbidity and Mortality in the US. *JAMA Netw Open.* 2020; 3: e2023677. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.23677> PMID: 33146732
15. Saitz R, Larson MJ, LaBelle C, Richardson J, Samet JH. The Case for Chronic Disease Management for Addiction. *J Addict Med.* 2008; 2: 55–65. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ADM.0b013e318166af74> PMID: 19809579
16. Saitz R, Cheng DM, Winter M, Kim TW, Meli SM, Allensworth-Davies D, et al. Chronic Care Management for Dependence on Alcohol and Other Drugs: The AHEAD Randomized Trial. *JAMA.* 2013; 310: 1156. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2013.277609> PMID: 24045740

17. McCauley JL, McLelland AT. Treating Addiction Like a Chronic Illness: A Practical Clinical Model. 6th ed. The American Psychiatric Association Publishing Textbook Of Substance Use Disorder Treatment. 6th ed. 2021. p. Chapter 7. Available: <https://doi.org.proxy2.cl.msu.edu/10.1176/appi.books.9781615373970>
18. Godersky ME, Saxon AJ, Merrill JO, Samet JH, Simoni JM, Tsui JI. Provider and patient perspectives on barriers to buprenorphine adherence and the acceptability of video directly observed therapy to enhance adherence. *Addict Sci Clin Pract*. 2019; 14: 11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13722-019-0139-3> PMID: 30867068
19. Madras BK, Ahmad NJ, Wen J, Sharfstein J, Prevention AT, Treatment, et al. Improving Access to Evidence-Based Medical Treatment for Opioid Use Disorder: Strategies to Address Key Barriers Within the Treatment System. *NAM Perspectives*. 2020 [cited 7 Dec 2021]. <https://doi.org/10.31478/202004b> PMID: 35291732
20. Olsson M, Wall M, Wang S, Crystal S, Blanco C. Risks of fatal opioid overdose during the first year following nonfatal overdose. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*. 2018; 190: 112–119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2018.06.004> PMID: 30005310
21. Abadie A, Cattaneo MD. Econometric Methods for Program Evaluation. *Annu Rev Econ*. 2018; 10: 465–503. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-economics-080217-053402>
22. Stuart EA, Huskamp HA, Duckworth K, Simmons J, Song Z, Chernew M, et al. Using propensity scores in difference-in-differences models to estimate the effects of a policy change. *Health Serv Outcomes Res Methodol*. 2014; 14: 166–182. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10742-014-0123-z> PMID: 25530705
23. American Society of Addiction Medicine. The ASAM National Practice Guideline for the Use of Medications in the Treatment of Addiction Involving Opioid Use. 2015. Available: <https://www.asam.org/docs/default-source/practice-support/guidelines-and-consensus-docs/asam-national-practice-guideline-supplement.pdf?sfvrsn=24#search=opioid%20chronic>
24. American Society of Addiction Medicine. The ASAM National Practice Guideline for the Treatment of Opioid Use Disorder: 2020 Focused Update. Rockville, MD: American Society of Addiction Medicine; 2020 p. 91.
25. Deci EL, Ryan RM. The “What” and “Why” of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*. 2000; 11: 227–268. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01
26. Committee on Medication-Assisted Treatment for Opioid Use Disorder, Board on Health Sciences Policy, Health and Medicine Division, National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. Medications for Opioid Use Disorder Save Lives. Leshner AI, Manchher M, editors. Washington, D.C.: National Academies Press; 2019. p. 25310. <https://doi.org/10.17226/25310>
27. Gustafson DH, Landucci G, McTavish F, Kornfield R, Johnson RA, Mares M-L, et al. The effect of bundling medication-assisted treatment for opioid addiction with mHealth: study protocol for a randomized clinical trial. *Trials*. 2016; 17: 592. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13063-016-1726-1> PMID: 27955689
28. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. Clinical Classifications Software Refined (CCSR) for ICD-10-CM Diagnoses. Mar 2021 [cited 25 May 2021]. Available: <https://www.hcup-us.ahrq.gov/toolssoftware/ccsr/dxccsr.jsp>
29. Lai HMX, Cleary M, Sitharthan T, Hunt GE. Prevalence of comorbid substance use, anxiety and mood disorders in epidemiological surveys, 1990–2014: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2015; 154: 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2015.05.031> PMID: 26072219
30. McCabe SE, West BT, Jutkiewicz EM, Boyd CJ. Multiple DSM-5 substance use disorders: A national study of US adults. *Hum Psychopharmacol Clin Exp*. 2017; 32: e2625. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hup.2625> PMID: 28750478
31. Connery HS, Taghian N, Kim J, Griffin M, Rockett IRH, Weiss RD, et al. Suicidal motivations reported by opioid overdose survivors: A cross-sectional study of adults with opioid use disorder. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2019; 205: 107612. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2019.107612> PMID: 31627077
32. Preux C, Bertin M, Tarot A, Authier N, Pinol N, Brugnon D, et al. Prevalence of Opioid Use Disorder among Patients with Cancer-Related Pain: A Systematic Review. *J Clin Med*. 2022; 11: 1594. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm11061594> PMID: 35329919
33. Seyfried O, Hester J. Opioids and endocrine dysfunction. *Br J Pain*. 2012; 6: 17–24. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2049463712438299> PMID: 26516462
34. Peterson C, Li M, Xu L, Mikosz CA, Luo F. Assessment of Annual Cost of Substance Use Disorder in US Hospitals. *JAMA Network Open*. 2021; 4. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.0242> PMID: 33666661
35. Walker KS, Bonny AE, McKnight ER, Nahata MC. Impact of Office-based Opioid Treatment on Emergency Visits and Hospitalization in Adolescents with Opioid Use Disorder. *J Pediatr*. 2020; 219: 236–242. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2019.12.058> PMID: 32044099

36. U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. HUD USPS ZIP Code Crosswalk Files. 2021 [cited 27 May 2021]. Available: https://www.huduser.gov/portal/datasets/usps_crosswalk.html
37. Wilson R, Din A. Understanding and Enhancing the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development's ZIP Code Crosswalk Files. *Cityscape*. 2018; 20: 277–294.
38. Kind AJH, Buckingham WR. Making Neighborhood-Disadvantage Metrics Accessible—The Neighborhood Atlas. *N Engl J Med*. 2018; 378: 2456–2458. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMp1802313> PMID: 29949490
39. University of Wisconsin School of Medicine and Public Health. Area Deprivation Index v2018 Neighborhood Atlas. 2021 [cited 27 May 2021]. Available: <https://www.neighborhoodatlas.medicine.wisc.edu/download>
40. [diversitydatakids.org](https://www.diversitydatakids.org). Child Opportunity Index. Institute for Child, Youth and Family Policy, Heller School for Social Policy and Management, Brandeis University. 2021 [cited 27 May 2021]. Available: <https://www.diversitydatakids.org/child-opportunity-index>
41. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Social Vulnerability Index, Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry Geospatial Research, Analysis, and Services Program. 2021 [cited 27 May 2021]. Available: <https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/placeandhealth/svi/index.html>
42. Austin PC. An Introduction to Propensity Score Methods for Reducing the Effects of Confounding in Observational Studies. *Multivariate Behav Res*. 2011; 46: 399–424. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00273171.2011.568786> PMID: 21818162
43. Tan Z. Bounded, efficient and doubly robust estimation with inverse weighting. *Biometrika*. 2010; 97: 661–682. <https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/asq035>
44. Chernozhukov V, Chetverikov D, Demirer M, Duflo E, Hansen C, Newey W, et al. Double/debiased machine learning for treatment and structural parameters. *Econom J*. 2018; 21: C1–C68. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ectj.12097>
45. Hirano K, Imbens GW, Ridder G. Efficient Estimation of Average Treatment Effects Using the Estimated Propensity Score. *Econometrica*. 2003; 71: 1161–1189. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0262.00442>
46. Abadie A, Imbens GW. Bias-Corrected Matching Estimators for Average Treatment Effects. *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics*. 2011; 29: 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1198/jbes.2009.07333>
47. StataCorp. Stata Statistical Software: Release 17. College Station, TX: StataCorp LP; 2017.
48. Graham AW, Schultz TK, Mayo-Smith MF, Ries RK, Wilford BB. Principles of Addiction Medicine. Chevy Chase, MD: American Society of Addiction Medicine; 2003.
49. Donovan DM, Knox PC, Skytta JAF, Blayney JA, DiCenzo J. Buprenorphine from detox and beyond: preliminary evaluation of a pilot program to increase heroin dependent individuals' engagement in a full continuum of care. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*. 2013; 44: 426–432. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2012.08.019> PMID: 23007109
50. Morgan JR, Barocas JA, Murphy SM, Epstein RL, Stein MD, Schackman BR, et al. Comparison of Rates of Overdose and Hospitalization After Initiation of Medication for Opioid Use Disorder in the Inpatient vs Outpatient Setting. *JAMA Network Open*. 2020; 3: e2029676. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.29676> PMID: 33320266
51. Nordeck CD, Welsh C, Schwartz RP, Mitchell SG, Cohen A, O'Grady KE, et al. Rehospitalization and substance use disorder (SUD) treatment entry among patients seen by a hospital SUD consultation-liaison service. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*. 2018; 186: 23–28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2017.12.043> PMID: 29529456
52. Mojtabai R, Mauro C, Wall MM, Barry CL, Olsson M. Medication Treatment For Opioid Use Disorders In Substance Use Treatment Facilities. *Health Affairs*. 2019; 38: 14–23. <https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2018.05162> PMID: 30615514
53. Beetham T, Saloner B, Gaye M, Wakeman SE, Frank RG, Barnett ML. Therapies Offered at Residential Addiction Treatment Programs in the United States. *JAMA*. 2020; 324: 804–806. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.8969> PMID: 32840587
54. Vilardaga R, Fisher T, Palenski PE, Kumaresan V, Mannelli P, Sweitzer MM, et al. Review of Popularity and Quality Standards of Opioid-Related Smartphone Apps. *Curr Addict Rep*. 2020; 7: 486–496. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40429-020-00344-6> PMID: 33777644
55. Demidenko E. Sample size and optimal design for logistic regression with binary interaction. *Stat Med*. 2008; 27: 36–46. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sim.2980> PMID: 17634969
56. Lee JD, Nunes EV, Novo P, Bachrach K, Bailey GL, Bhatt S, et al. Comparative effectiveness of extended-release naltrexone versus buprenorphine-naloxone for opioid relapse prevention (X:BOT): a multicentre, open-label, randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2018; 391: 309–318. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(17\)32812-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(17)32812-X) PMID: 29150198

57. Brooklyn JR, Sigmon SC. Vermont Hub-and-Spoke Model of Care for Opioid Use Disorder: Development, Implementation, and Impact. *Journal of Addiction Medicine*. 2017; 11: 286–292. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ADM.0000000000000310> PMID: 28379862
58. D'Onofrio G, Chawarski MC, O'Connor PG, Pantalon MV, Busch SH, Owens PH, et al. Emergency Department-Initiated Buprenorphine for Opioid Dependence with Continuation in Primary Care: Outcomes During and After Intervention. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2017; 32: 660–666. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-017-3993-2> PMID: 28194688
59. Walsh SL, El-Bassel N, Jackson RD, Samet JH, Aggarwal M, Aldridge AP, et al. The HEALing (Helping to End Addiction Long-term SM) Communities Study: Protocol for a cluster randomized trial at the community level to reduce opioid overdose deaths through implementation of an integrated set of evidence-based practices. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*. 2020; 217: 108335. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108335> PMID: 33248391